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ECONOMIC POLICY, ORGANIZATION, AND MANAGEMENT

NEW STATUTE ON STATE ARBITRATION BOARD UNDER USSR COUNCIL OF MINISTERS

Moscow EKONOMICHESKAYA GAZETA in Russian No 37, Sep 80 p 14

[Statute on State Arbitration Board under the USSR Council of Ministers]

[Text] In connection with the decree of the USSR Supreme Soviet of 30 November 1979, "On the Policy for Effecting the USSR law, 'On the State Arbitration Board in the USSR,'" the USSR Council of Ministers, by a decree of 5 June 1980, No 440, approved the Statute on the State Arbitration Board Under the USSR Council of Ministers. At the same time it approved the rules for examining economic disputes by state arbitration boards (see SP SSSR, 1980, Nos 16-17, p 104). Both documents went into effect beginning 1 July 1980.

1. In keeping with the USSR law, "On State Arbitration in the USSR," the state arbitration board under the USSR Council of Ministers (USSR State Arbitration Board) is a union-republic agency of the USSR.

The USSR State Arbitration Board and state arbitration boards of union and autonomous republics, krais, oblasts, cities, autonomous oblasts and autonomous okrugs comprise a unified system of state arbitration agencies in the USSR.

The USSR State Arbitration Board is responsible for the organization, condition and improvement of the activity of all state arbitration agencies.

2. The main tasks of the USSR State Arbitration Board are:

guidance of state arbitration agencies;

the insurance of uniform and correct application of legislation by state arbitration boards, arbitration boards of ministries, state committees and departments, and other agencies in resolving economic disputes;

the development of proposals and the implementation of measures directed toward improving legal regulation of economic activity.

The USSR State Arbitration Board:

uses all legal means in order to strengthen the protection of socialist property, to strengthen autonomous financing [khozraschet], to strengthen the system of economy and eliminate losses in the national economy, to increase the role of the

contract, to develop efficient economic ties and cooperation among enterprises, institutions and organizations, contributing to dynamic, planned and proportional development of the national economy, to the acceleration of scientific and technical progress, to an increase in the efficiency of public production and the quality of work, and to improvement of the final results of economic activity;

directs the work of state arbitration agencies for ensuring the protection of the rights and the interests protected by law of enterprises, institutions and organizations when resolving economic disputes, for prompt examination of these disputes and active influence on enterprises, institutions and organizations in order for them to fulfill planned assignments and contractual commitments, to prevent and eliminate violations of the law and manifestations of local and departmental narrowness in economic activity, to improve contract and complaint procedures, and for the performance by state arbitration agencies of other tasks envisioned by the USSR law, "On State Arbitration in the USSR."

3. The USSR State Arbitration Board provides leadership of all state arbitration agencies, as a rule, through state arbitration boards of union republics.

4. The USSR State Arbitration Board is guided in its activity by the USSR Constitution, laws of the USSR, other decisions of the USSR Supreme Soviet and its Presidium, and decrees and regulations of the USSR Council of Ministers, and also the present statute.

5. The USSR State Arbitration Board:

a) develops and implements measures for the implementation by state arbitration agencies of decisions of the party and government;

b) resolves the most important economic disputes in keeping with its established competence;

c) under the established policy, provides supervision over the legality of decisions of state arbitration boards;

d) on instructions from the USSR Council of Ministers, resolves differences of opinion among ministries, state committees and departments of the USSR that arise when they conclude agreements regarding questions of economic activity;

e) within the limits of its competence, issues instructions regarding questions of applying USSR legislation when resolving economic disputes and their regulation before arbitration, which are mandatory for arbitration agencies and also for ministries, state committees, departments, enterprises, institutions and organizations;

f) invalidates normative acts of state arbitration boards of union republics in the event that they do not correspond to legislation of the USSR, and either abolishes or amends instructions of state arbitration boards of union republics when they do not correspond to the instructions of the USSR State Arbitration Board;

g) regularly checks on the activity of state arbitration agencies, hears reports from main state arbitration boards of the union republics and, if necessary, of the autonomous republics, krais, oblasts, cities, autonomous oblasts and autonomous okrugs;

h) studies and generalizes the practice of applying legislation when resolving economic disputes and, on this basis, develops and, under the established policy, introduces proposals for improving legal regulation of economic activity and also the activity of state arbitration agencies and arbitration boards of ministries, state committees and departments;

i) instructs arbitration boards of ministries, state committees and departments, and also other agencies that resolve economic disputes and determines the policy for their instruction of lower state arbitration agencies regarding questions of the organization and practice of work for examining these disputes, studies the experience in this work and gives the corresponding agencies recommendations about measures for improving it;

j) within the system of state arbitration agencies, organizes the work for selection, placement and education of personnel, and provides for their retraining and improvement of their skills, the creation of conditions for the best utilization of the knowledge and experience of the workers, and the advancement to management work of politically mature and well recommended specialists; with the agreement of the councils of ministers of the union republics, approves standard norms for work loads for one state arbiter;

k) studies, generalizes and disseminates positive work experience of state arbitration agencies;

l) organizes the work for keeping arbitration statistics and instructs state arbitration agencies on questions of statistical accounting;

m) implements measures related to conducting scientific research work on legal problems of the organization and activity of arbitration agencies, the strengthening of their influence on increasing the efficiency of public production and the quality of work, the elimination of violations of the law and state discipline and shortcomings in economic activity, and also causes and conditions that give rise to economic disputes, and organizes the introduction into practice of the results of this scientific research work;

n) under the established policy, maintains international ties with state arbitration agencies of the socialist countries.

6. In order to prevent legal violations in economic activity, the USSR State Arbitration Board:

examines economic disputes that are of great public significance immediately at enterprises, institutions and organizations;

propagandizes economic legislation and organizes this work within state arbitration agencies;

familiarizes the ministries, state committees, departments, enterprises, institutions and organizations with the practice of applying legislation when concluding agreements and executing commitments, and also during prearbitration regulation of economic disputes;

develops proposals for prevention and elimination of violations of the law and state discipline, and also shortcomings in the economic activity of enterprises, institutions and organizations, and also for revealing and eliminating causes of violations and shortcomings; under the established policy, introduces these proposals for the consideration of the USSR Council of Ministers, the ministries, state committees and departments of the USSR, and the councils of ministers of the union republics;

in conjunction with ministries, state committees, departments, enterprises, institutions and organizations, considers questions related to the development of measures for the prevention and also for the elimination of legal violations and shortcomings in economic activity that have been revealed by state arbitration;

under the established policy, informs enterprises, institutions, organizations, and their higher agencies and officials about violations of the law and state discipline and shortcomings in economic activity that have been revealed along with proposals for eliminating them, and also the assignment of liability to guilty parties and the reimbursement for material damage that has been caused by them.

Managers of enterprises, institutions, organizations and their higher agencies that have received this information are obliged to inform the USSR State Arbitration Board about measures that have been taken within a month from the time they have received the communication.

When necessary, information about violations of the law and state discipline as well as shortcomings in economic activity that have been revealed are sent for the consideration of the question of holding guilty parties liable to procurators' offices, internal affairs agencies and other competent agencies.

The USSR State Arbitration Board informs the USSR Council of Ministers of the more serious violations of the law and state discipline and shortcomings in economic activity that have been allowed by ministries, state committees, departments, enterprises, institutions and organizations.

The USSR State Arbitration Board coordinates its activity for preventing legal violations with the activity of the USSR Procurator's Office, the USSR Ministry of Justice, the USSR Ministry of Internal Affairs, the USSR Supreme Court, the USSR People's Control Committee and other state agencies.

7. The USSR State Arbitration Board approves:

special conditions for the delivery of individual kinds of products for industrial and technical purposes (in conjunction with the USSR Gosnab);

special conditions for the delivery of individual kinds of consumer goods;

instructions on the policy for receiving products for production and technical purposes and consumer goods in terms of quantity and quality;

provisions for a third court for resolving economic disputes among enterprises, institutions and organizations;

standard agreements and other normative acts that regulate economic activity, on instructions from the USSR Council of Ministers.

8. The USSR State Arbitration Board gives ministries, state committees and departments clarifications regarding the application of:

rules for the examination of economic disputes by state arbitration boards;

provisions concerning the policy for submitting and examining complaints by enterprises, institutions and organizations and the regulation of differences of opinion regarding economic agreements;

provisions concerning deliveries of products for industrial and technical purposes (in conjunction with the USSR Gosplan) and provisions concerning deliveries of consumer goods;

conditions for the delivery of goods for export and conditions for the fulfillment by all-union foreign trade associations of orders of Soviet organizations for the import of goods (enlisting the USSR Ministry of Foreign Trade and the USSR State Committee for Foreign Economic ties);

decisions of the USSR Council of Ministers that regulate economic activity, upon instructions from it.

9. In cases stipulated by USSR legislation or on instructions from the USSR Council of Ministers, the USSR State Arbitration Board examines drafts of normative acts that have been submitted for coordination, which regulate economic activity, and also gives ministries, state committees and departments of the USSR conclusions regarding drafts of such normative acts that they have developed.

If necessary, the USSR State Arbitration Board, in conjunction with ministries, state committees and departments of the USSR, issues joint acts within the limits of the corresponding competence.

10. The USSR State Arbitration Board is headed by the USSR Chief State Arbiter.

The Chief State Arbiter of the USSR is appointed to this position and released from this position by the USSR Council of Ministers.

The USSR Chief State Arbiter is responsible for the performance of duties assigned to the USSR State Arbitration Board.

11. The USSR Chief State Arbiter has deputies, including a first deputy who is appointed to the positions and released from the position by the USSR Council of Ministers. The distribution of responsibilities among the deputies is carried out by the USSR Chief State Arbiter.

12. The state arbiters of the USSR State Arbitration Board are appointed to the position and released from the position by the USSR Council of Ministers at the request of the USSR Chief State Arbiter. The distribution of responsibilities among state arbiters is carried out by the USSR Chief State Arbiter.

13. The USSR Chief State Arbiter, on the basis of and in adherence to legislation, issues orders, instructions and decrees, and approves provisions for structural subdivisions of the USSR State Arbitration Board and, under the established policy, appoints or releases staff workers from positions, determines the degree of responsibility of managers of structural subdivisions for individual areas of the activity of the USSR State Arbitration Board, provides general leadership of the work for selecting, placing and educating personnel within the system of state arbitration agencies, and, under the established policy, takes measures for incentives and penalties for workers of these agencies.

14. The USSR State Arbitration Board includes a board made up of the USSR Chief State Arbiter (chairman) and deputies of the USSR Chief State Arbiter for various duties, and also other managers of state arbitration workers.

Members of the board of the USSR State Arbitration Board are approved by the USSR Council of Ministers.

15. The leadership group of the USSR State Arbitration Board in its regular meetings considers the main issues of the activity of state arbitration agencies, discusses issues regarding practical management of these agencies, inspection of the performance, selection, placement and education of personnel, drafts developed by the USSR State Arbitration Board of the most important normative acts, guidelines, instructions and decrees, the results of the study of the work experience of arbitration boards of ministries, state committees and departments, and hears reports from state arbiters of the USSR State Arbitration Board and the managers of its structural subdivisions, and also from the chief state arbiters of lower arbitration agencies.

The decisions of the leadership group of the USSR State Arbitration Board are implemented, as a rule, by orders of the USSR Chief State Arbiter. In the event of disagreements between the USSR Chief State Arbiter and the leadership group, the USSR Chief State Arbiter carries out his decision, but informs the USSR Council of Ministers of the disagreements that have arisen, and members of the leadership group, in turn, can inform the USSR Council of Ministers of their opinion.

16. Under the established policy, the USSR State Arbitration Board convenes conferences of workers of state arbitration agencies and arbitration boards of ministries, state committees and departments of the USSR, at which they hear reports on measures for implementing decisions of the party and government and consider questions of applying existing legislation when resolving economic disputes as well as other important issues in the work of arbitration boards.

17. In order to develop scientifically substantiated recommendations regarding questions of the organization and activity of arbitration agencies and to consider questions related to the development of measures for preventing and eliminating violations of the law and state discipline and shortcomings in economic activity that have been revealed by state arbitration, the USSR State Arbitration Board creates a scientific consultative council comprised of eminent scientists and other highly qualified specialists (including representatives of ministries, state committees and departments).

The makeup of the scientific consultative council and the provisions concerning it are approved by the USSR Chief State Arbiter.

18. The USSR State Arbitration Board, in conjunction with the USSR Ministry of Justice, publishes the magazine KHOZYAYSTVO I PRAVO.

19. The structure and the number of workers of the staff of the USSR State Arbitration Board are approved by the USSR Council of Ministers. The table of distribution of the USSR State Arbitration Board is approved by the USSR Chief State Arbitrator.

20. The USSR State Arbitration Board has a stamp with a depiction of the USSR State Emblem and its own appellation.

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ECONOMIC POLICY, ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT

NEW STATUTE ON BOOKKEEPING PROCEDURES FOR MINISTRIES, DEPARTMENTS, OTHER UNITS

Moscow EKONOMICHESKAYA GAZETA in Russian No 40, Oct 80 p 22

[General Statute on the Organization of Bookkeeping Work in Ministries, Departments, All-Union and Republic Associations, Main Administrations of Ministries and Other Administrative Agencies, approved by the USSR Ministry of Finance on 7 July 1980]

[Text] 1. General provisions

1.1 Correct organization of bookkeeping is very important for increasing the efficiency of production and the quality of work, for implementing the strictest policy of economy and autonomous financing [khozraschet], and in exercising control over the expenditure of state and public funds according to their purposes.

1.2 The present statute determines the policy for organizing bookkeeping in ministries, state committees, departments, all-union and republic associations, main administrations of ministries, state committees, departments, administrations (divisions) of ispolkoms of kray, oblast, okrug, city and rayon soviets of people's deputies, administrative agencies of cooperative and public organizations and other administrative agencies.*

1.3 The organization of bookkeeping in these administrative agencies is carried out by administrations for bookkeeping and accounting, divisions for bookkeeping and accounting, central bookkeeping offices, centralized bookkeeping offices and other bookkeeping offices.**

1.4 Bookkeeping services are independent structural subdivisions of the administrative agency and should not be a part of any other service.

1.5 The main task of the bookkeeping service is to organize bookkeeping within the system of the corresponding administrative agency in order to provide for control over efficient and economical utilization of material, labor and financial resources, and protection of socialist property in the associations, enterprises, organizations and institutions under their jurisdiction.

* Subsequently all administrative agencies listed in point 1.2 will be called "administrative agencies."

** Subsequently all these subdivisions will be called "bookkeeping services."

1.6 Bookkeeping services are guided in their activity by: legislative acts and decisions of the government of the USSR and the union republics; normative acts of the USSR Ministry of Finance, the USSR Central Statistical Administration, the USSR State Committee for Labor and Social Problems, the USSR Gosbank, the USSR Stroybank and the USSR Foreign Trade Bank on questions of bookkeeping, accountability and control and issues related to them concerning planning, financing, the extension of credit, accounts and so forth; decisions (orders, guidelines, instructions and so forth) of higher organizations and of the administrative agency; and the present statute.

1.7 If the bookkeeping services keep accounts directly for operations involving centralized funds and reserves, redistribution of funds, intradepartmental accounts, fulfillment of the budget, and the drawing up of estimates of expenditures on the maintenance of a given administrative agency, when doing this work the managers of the bookkeeping services are guided by the Provisions Concerning Main Bookkeeping Offices, which were approved by a decree of the USSR Council of Ministers of 24 January 1980, No 59.*

1.8 The bookkeeping service is headed by the chief of the administration (division), the head bookkeeper, who is directly under the jurisdiction of the manager of the administrative agency, and regarding problems of organization and methodology of bookkeeping, drawing up accounts, policy and methods of exercising control - under the jurisdiction of the manager of the bookkeeping service of the ministry, department or other higher administrative agency.

1.9 The manager of the bookkeeping service of the ministry, state committee or department of the USSR or union republic (chief of the administration or division for bookkeeping and accounting) is appointed to the position and relieved of the position by the minister (manager of the department).

The manager of the bookkeeping service of other administrative agencies is appointed to the position and relieved of the position under the policy established for appointing and relieving the manager of the given administrative agency upon written request from this manager or with the agreement of the manager of the bookkeeping service of the higher administrative agency. The appointment to a position and the release from this position of a manager of bookkeeping services of an administrative agency of a consumers' cooperative and also of a public organization are approved by the higher agency under the policy established in keeping with their charter.

1.10 Individuals appointed to the position of manager of a bookkeeping service have a higher specialized education.

If necessary, by a decision of the higher agency, an individual without a higher specialized education can be appointed to this position if he has no less than 5 years of experience working in the specialty.

1.11 The manager of the bookkeeping service cannot be assigned duties related to direct material responsibility for monetary funds or other values.

* Announced in a letter of the USSR Ministry of Finance of 4 March 1980, No 40.

He is not allowed to receive directly checks or other documents or monetary funds or commercial-material values for the administrative agency.

1.12 During the time the manager of the bookkeeping service is absent (business trips, vacations, illness and so forth) the rights and responsibilities go to his deputy, and when the latter is absent -- to another official, which is announced by an order from the administrative agency.

2. Functions of bookkeeping services for organizing bookkeeping in ministries, state committees and departments of the USSR and union republics.

Bookkeeping services (administrations or divisions for bookkeeping and accounting, central bookkeeping offices) of ministries, state committees and departments of the USSR and union republics are assigned the following functions:

2.1 Methodological provision of bookkeeping and accounting and control over correct keeping and reliability of accounts and accountability within the system of the ministry, state committee or department. The development of plans for the operation of the bookkeeping service so as to improve bookkeeping and accounting within the system of the ministry, state committee or department.

2.2 The development (participation in the development) of branch and departmental provisions, guidelines and instructions for keeping books for material values, monetary funds, labor and wages, expenditures on production, funds and accounts and so forth. The development and implementation of measures for centralization of accounting work and extensive application of progressive forms and methods of bookkeeping. Generalization and organization of exchange and dissemination of advanced practice in keeping accounts and accountability within the system of the ministry, state committee or department, and also participation in the organization of socialist competition and review-competitions for exemplary accounts and accountability within the associations, enterprises, organizations and institutions under the jurisdiction of the department.

2.3 The adoption of measures for more extensive utilization of modern means of mechanization and automation of accounting and computing work within the system of the ministry, state committee or department, participation in the distribution of funds for computer and organizational equipment and in the development and introduction of automated control systems, and participation in control over efficient utilization of computer equipment.

2.4 The development under the established policy of forms for primary accounting documentation on the basis of standard forms from other services, further improvement of established documentation and control over its introduction.

2.5 The development of guidelines for all-union (republic) industrial associations, main administrations, other administrative agencies, associations, enterprises, organizations and institutions concerning the policy for drawing up the deadlines for presenting periodical and annual bookkeeping reports.

The receipt and examination of bookkeeping reports from all-union (republic) associations, main administrations and other administrative agencies, and also associations, enterprises, organizations and institutions that are under the direct

jurisdiction of the ministry (state committee, department); supervision of corrections that are made after they have been checked; the drawing up of a consolidated report for various kinds of activity and its preparation for presentation to the proper agency within the established time periods.

2.6 The organization and, in conjunction with other services, the preparation of materials for approval of consolidated accounts and balances, accounts concerning fulfillment of the budget and an estimate of expenditures of administrative agencies, associations, enterprises, organizations and institutions that are directly under the jurisdiction of the ministry (state committee, department). Supervision of the examination and approval of accounts and balances of associations, enterprises, organizations and institutions under their jurisdiction in administrative agencies that are under the jurisdiction of the ministry, state committee or department.

2.7 Organization and participation in the work for examining consolidated accounts and balances of ministries and departments of union republics with the same names.

2.8 In conjunction with other services, analysis of the financial and economic activity of all-union (republic) industrial associations, main administrations and other administrative agencies, and also associations, enterprises, organizations and institutions that are directly under the jurisdiction of the ministry (state committee, department), and the submission to the management of the ministry (state committee, department) of proposals directed toward seeking out additional resources, improving financial and economic activity, economical and purposeful expenditure of state funds, the elimination of nonproductive expenditures and losses, increased efficiency of production and improved quality of work, and the protection of socialist property in the branch.

2.9 Systematic supervision of the work of bookkeeping services of lower agencies to make sure that they fulfill the functions, rights and responsibilities they have. Provision of the necessary supervision of the observance of the provisions concerning head bookkeeping offices and the preparation of proposals for holding officials responsible when they allow violations of them. The conducting of inspections of the condition of bookkeeping in all areas of its system. The rendering of assistance in utilizing accounting data for work to reveal and mobilize intrabusiness resources.

2.10 The examination of materials and the preparation of conclusions concerning proposals for writing off from the books shortages, losses, curtailed work and so forth, under the established policy. Participation in the development of measures for protecting socialist property in associations, enterprises, organizations and institutions of the branch.

2.11 Participation in the development of standard provisions and methodology for autonomous financing [khozraschet] for all parts of its system, proceeding from the specific features of its activity.

2.12 Submission of the necessary information from bookkeeping data to other services of the ministry, state committee or department under the established policy. Receipt of information from other services that is necessary for carrying out the functions of the bookkeeping service.

2.13 Participation in the consideration of questions related to the creation of new and the elimination of existing associations, enterprises, organizations and institutions. Orders and decisions regarding these questions must be coordinated with the manager of the bookkeeping service.

2.14 Participation in the development of provisions, instructions and other normative documents regarding questions of planning, finance, statistics and so forth, and also regarding questions of regulating the financial and economic activity of the administrative agencies, associations, enterprises, organizations and institutions.

2.15 In conjunction with other services, the preparation of materials for consideration by the board (committee, administration) of the results of financial and economic activity and other issues within the competence of the bookkeeping service.

2.16 In conjunction with administrations (divisions) of personnel and training institutions, the implementation of measures for training and improving the skills of bookkeeping workers of its branch (system).

2.17 The organization of work for providing associations, enterprises, organizations, institutions and centralized bookkeeping offices (directly or through lower agencies) with blank forms for accounting and reporting documentation and also guidelines and instructions regarding questions of bookkeeping and accounting.

2.18 Systematized accounting for provisions, instructions and methodological guidelines regarding questions of accounting, accountability, analysis, control and other normative documents that are within the competence of bookkeeping services.

2.19 The representation of the interests of the ministry, state committee or department in the corresponding agencies when considering questions having to do with accounting, accountability and financial control.

2.20 Enlistment under the established policy of scientific research and planning-design organizations both of its own system and of other ministries and departments for the development of special problems in bookkeeping, accountability, control, mechanization and automation of accounting and computing procedures.

3. Functions of bookkeeping services for organizing bookkeeping work in all-union and republic associations, main administrations of ministries and other analogous administrative agencies.

Bookkeeping services (divisions for bookkeeping and accounting, bookkeeping offices) of all-union and republic associations, main administrations of ministries, state committees, departments, administrations (divisions) of ispolkoms of kray, oblast, okrug, city (except cities under rayon jurisdiction) and rayon soviets of people's deputies, administrative agencies of cooperative and social organizations and other administrative agencies are assigned the following functions:

3.1 Providing for correct organization of bookkeeping and accounting in associations, enterprises, organizations and institutions of their system on the basis of established rules for accounting and drawing up reports.

3.2 Implementing measures for extensive application of progressive forms and methods of bookkeeping and forms of primary documentation that have been approved under the established policy. Generalizing and organizing exchange and dissemination of advanced experience in bookkeeping and accounting in their system. Implementing measures for preparing and conducting competitions for the best organization and arrangement of bookkeeping and accountability in associations, enterprises, organizations and institutions under their jurisdiction.

3.3 Developing measures for more extensive utilization of modern means of mechanization and automation of accounting and computing work in their own system, rendering assistance in conjunction with other services to associations, enterprises, institutions and organizations under their jurisdiction in developing and introducing automated control systems for enterprises (according to the "bookkeeping" subsystem), and participating in control over efficient utilization of computer equipment.

3.4 Exercising control (through conducting inspections and other measures) over the condition of bookkeeping in enterprises, associations, organizations and institutions under their jurisdiction so that the head bookkeepers will utilize more fully the data from bookkeeping for ensuring efficient and economical utilization of material, labor and financial resources as well as protection of socialist property.

3.5 Exercising control over prompt and correct completion of established bookkeeping reports by the associations, enterprises, organizations and institutions under the jurisdiction of the given agency. Receiving, examining and checking these reports, making sure that corrections are made after they have been checked. Drawing up a consolidated report for various kinds of activity and preparing it to be submitted to the established agencies within the established time periods.

3.6 In conjunction with other services of the administrative agency, organizing and participating in the preparation of materials for approving bookkeeping and balances of associations, enterprises, organizations and institutions that are parts of the given administrative agency.

3.7 Considering and preparing conclusions and proposals for writing off from the books shortages, losses and so forth under the established policy (within the competence of the given administrative agency). Making sure that the sums of shortages and thefts are promptly and correctly reflected in the accounts. Participating in the development of measures for protecting socialist property and making reimbursement for material damage in associations, enterprises, organizations and institutions that are parts of the given administrative agency.

3.8 In conjunction with other services, analyzing the financial and economic activity of the administrative agency as a whole and also the associations, enterprises, organizations and institutions under its jurisdiction. Developing appropriate measures for eliminating shortcomings that have been revealed and reinforcing positive results.

3.9 Exercising systematic control over the observance of the provisions concerning head bookkeeping offices in the associations, enterprises, organizations under their jurisdiction, rendering all-around assistance to head bookkeeping offices

in executing their rights and responsibilities, and preparing proposals for assigning liability to officials who allow violations.

3.10 Submitting necessary information from bookkeeping and accounting to other services of the given administrative agency under the established policy, and also materials for the consideration and preparation of decisions regarding the results of the financial and economic activity and other issues that are within the competence of the bookkeeping service.

3.11 Systematized accounting for provisions, instructions and methodological guidelines regarding questions of accounting, accountability, analysis and control, and other normative documents that are within the competence of bookkeeping services and, under the established policy, making these materials available to associations, enterprises, organizations and institutions of the system.

3.12 Representing the interests of the administrative agency in the corresponding agencies when considering questions pertaining to the competence of the bookkeeping service.

4. The rights of managers of bookkeeping services.

Managers of bookkeeping services have the right:

4.1 To issue instructions regarding questions of filling primary documents, accounting, accountability and control which are mandatory for all structural subdivisions (services) of the given administrative agency and associations, enterprises, organizations, institutions and centralized bookkeeping offices under its jurisdiction.

4.2 To obtain from other subdivisions (services) of the given administrative agency and also from associations, enterprises, organizations and institutions the necessary clarifications regarding issues of financial and economic activity and the observance of finance estimate discipline.

4.3 To participate in meetings and conferences convened by the management of the given administrative agency when considering issues pertaining to the competence of bookkeeping services.

4.4 To carry on correspondence regarding issues of methodology of bookkeeping and accountability as well as other issues in keeping with the competence of the bookkeeping services established by the administrative agencies.

4.5 With the permission of the manager of the administrative agency and under the established policy, to hold seminars regarding issues of bookkeeping and accountability.

5. The responsibility of managers of bookkeeping services.

Managers of bookkeeping services are responsible for organizing bookkeeping work within the system of the corresponding administrative agency. In particular, they are responsible in the following cases:

5.1 When instructions and guidelines they issue regarding questions of organizing bookkeeping, accountability and control in their system do not correspond to existing legislation.

5.2 When there are incorrect conclusions regarding issues of writing off from the books shortages and other losses established by the provisions concerning bookkeeping accounts and balances.

5.3 When inaccurate consolidated periodical and annual bookkeeping reports are drawn up and the established time periods for submitting them to the corresponding agencies (in conjunction with the manager of the administrative agency) are not met.

5.4 When the management of the administrative agency is not promptly supplied with information that characterizes the activity of the system of the given administrative agency regarding a group of issues pertaining to the bookkeeping service.

Disciplinary, material and criminal liability of managers of bookkeeping services is determined in keeping with existing legislation.

Here disciplinary measures against managers of bookkeeping services (except for managers of bookkeeping services of ministries and departments) are imposed in accordance with their subordinate status by the managers of the corresponding higher agencies.

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PLANNING AND PLAN IMPLEMENTATION

ECONOMIST EXPLAINS ROLE OF PROFIT IN EFFECTIVE PLANNING

Moscow FINANSY SSSR in Russian No 10, Oct 80 pp 25-29

[Article by R. A. Alaverdov, candidate of economic sciences: "The Role of Profit in Improving the Effectiveness of Planning"]

[Text] The 1979 decree of the CPSU Central Committee and USSR Council of Ministers on improving planning and the economic mechanism opens a new stage in raising the efficiency of the national economy, and one of its most important aspects is planning.

Continuous growth in the volume of capital investment and the growing complexity of planning related to the increasing pace of scientific-technical progress and the rising demands for comprehensive programs of expanded reproduction have made it necessary to single out planning as an independent economic sector. More than 800,000 persons work in this sector today. As the principal connecting link in the cycle between science and production and an important stage of the investment process, planning has a significant effect on the efficiency of development of all economic sectors. However, many of the most important economic problems in this field have still not been investigated.

Unlike industry, where profit generally characterizes the quantity and quality of articles sold by enterprises, in planning profit is determined by the amount and average prime cost of output sold, and the quality of the output does not affect the amount of savings. The quality of industrial output can be evaluated chiefly during its development or immediately after manufacture, but the quality of planning output usually appears in the course of construction or after the planned capacities have been launched and incorporated, that is, from three to 10 years after ratification of the contract (contract-detail) design. But it is precisely the quality of plans that is important for the efficiency of new or reconstructed fixed capital in the national economy. The existing system of prices and procedures for the formation of profit and stimulation funds have an essentially negative impact on raising plan quality. In large part this is a result of their mechanical application by analogy with other sectors, not taking the specific features of planning and planning work into account.

In planning work the immediate productive labor force is engineering-technical personnel. The labor itself consists chiefly of information processing (correction, digesting, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation), making planning decisions, and putting them in document form. The objects of labor are various kinds of information, while the means of labor (equipment, tools, and the like) do not play a decisive part today and probably will not in the near future. The main distinctive feature of planning work with respect to form is the high percentage of expenditures to pay the wages of the planners, who are chiefly on time payment, while the distinctive feature of the work itself is its creative character, which determines the efficiency of future fixed capital.

One of the characteristics of the creative aspect of planning labor is that, by summarizing the results of scientific and technical advances in a single integrated complex (the model of the future object), this labor is able not only to preserve efficiency but also to create additional efficiency through optimal planning concepts. If planning labor can to some extent be compared with scientific labor, planning production as a system is comparable to industrial production only if we take into account the characteristics that arise from the distinctive nature of planning labor.

As in industry, so in planning when expenditures are lower profit will be higher. In planning, however, profit as an evaluation and fund-formation indicator that does not basically depend on the quality of output creates a possibility that the efficiency of construction work and of the fixed capital being launched will be lowered. If a planner thinks through a planning decision more rapidly, this will reduce the time and primary expenditures (wages of the time-rate engineer) to produce the planning output. But this kind of growth in profit creates a possibility that the quality of the plan will be worsened. In practice a reduction in the time taken to work out planning decisions is often linked to abbreviated planning periods which produce much results.

Let us look at some report figures for the USSR as a whole over a number of years.

If we consider that the prices for planning work contain planned savings of three percent, our attention is immediately drawn to the multiple savings, compared to norms, throughout all these years. Most authors who have considered the questions of planning economics ignore these deviations, while others consider the chief cause to be an overstatement of prices for planning work. The latter viewpoint, to judge by numerous reductions in prices, is in fact the official viewpoint and is not questioned in practice by inter-sectorial agencies for management of planning. If we agree with this, we must determine why the many reductions in prices for planning work, almost 60 percent between 1953 and 1962, did not essentially change the situation. The latest reduction in prices, by an average of 17 percent in 1969, even in the same year only reduced actual savings to 300 percent of the norms. It is noteworthy that in the two years after each regular reduction in prices actual savings reached 23 percent for 1954, 26 percent for 1959, 15 percent for 1963, and 14 percent for 1971. At the same time planning work as a percentage of the volume of construction and installation work shows a tendency to rise steadily.

Table 1

Indicators	1965	1967	1969	1971	1973	1975	1976	1977	1978
Volume of Construction and Installation Work, billions of rubles	35.5	41.1	45.0	54.2	59.1	66.2	67.0	68.4	69.5
Volume of Planning and Surveying Work, billions of rubles	0.7	0.9	1.3	1.5	1.9	2.3	2.3	2.5	2.5
Actual Prime Cost of Planning and Surveying Work as % of Estimated Cost	82.4	80.3	90.9	85.9	81.3	77.4	75.9	74.4	74.5
Planning and Surveying Work as % of Volume of Construction and Installation Work	2.0	2.2	2.9	2.8	3.2	3.5	3.4	3.6	3.6

To answer the questions that are raised we must consider the specific characteristics of price formation and planning production in greater detail. The price should be a powerful economic stimulus for any cost accounting (khozraschet) organization and should insure a unity of interests among the enterprise, sector, and national economy. To perform this function in planning the price must above all reflect the quality of planning output. Prices for planning work are determined according to the Manual of Prices for Planning and Surveying Work, which became effective in 1967 and has been somewhat supplemented and clarified since then. In essence, the price is determined depending on the type, designation, scope, and cost of the construction and installation work. Development of the Manual of Prices began in 1963 and for the most part did not take account of the appearance of new jobs or the increase and growing complexity of planning work in the preceding period, which had to do with the much higher demands made of planning in light of the scientific-technical revolution.¹

According to an analysis done by the All-Union State Institute for the Planning of Scientific Research Institutes and Laboratories of the Academy of Sciences USSR and the Academies of Sciences of the Union Republics in 1976-1977, for 620 specific representative projects in various economic sectors the cost of planning work is 1.6 percent of the volume of capital investment.

Let us try to establish the basic factors in the formation of large savings by analyzing a particular plan and planning work and determine the reason for the

¹ The new planning norms and rules were officially introduced in 1969 (SN 202-69) and 1976 (SN 202-76).

ineffectiveness of the "campaign" by intersectorial planning management agencies against what is called the "overstatement" of prices for planning output.

It is difficult to determine the profitability of a particular plan because actual record-keeping of expenditures is done only for the planning organization as a whole during the report month, quarter, or year. Therefore, let us consider the structure of expenditures given in Table 2 below for a single plan with different alternatives for actual planning time (hypothetical example).

Table 2. Structure of Expenditures for a Single Plan.

	I	Options II	III
Length of Planning with a Standard of 150 Working Days	150	135	120
Estimated Cost of Plan, rubles	10,000	10,000	10,000
Included in above:			
Basic Wages of Production Personnel	6,000	5,400	4,800
Other Expenditures	3,700	3,515	3,230
Savings	300	1,085	1,970

If we assume that during the period under consideration labor productivity did not rise and that the normative length and estimated cost of the plan are given accurately, the actual savings from reducing the length of planning by 10 or 20 percent are 10.8 and 19.7 percent respectively. Considering the proportion of basic wages of production personnel in expenditures, a reduction in normative times regardless of the reason always increases savings by an amount almost equal to the percentage of reduction in time relative to basic wages and the corresponding part of other expenditures, chiefly overhead costs.

Whereas a reduction in time periods of 20 percent in construction reduces all expenditures (chiefly overhead costs) by roughly two percent,² in planning it produces a 17 percent decrease. In construction such a reduction in time periods is efficient within certain limits and under certain conditions, but it rarely occurs in practice; in planning similar, and much greater, reductions are widespread, but not always efficient. An increase in the planning time for a specific project does not cause a significant increase in the actual prime cost because other plans are developed during temporary stoppages. The actual prime cost may greatly exceed the estimated cost for a specific plan only when the planning period is prolonged without interruptions, for example, because of finding better planning concepts in the concluding stage of planning, involving a correction of a significant part of sections of the plan already worked out and the availability of time reserves to complete the work; in practice this seldom happens.

² Ionas, B. Ya., and Reynin, S. N., "Ekonomika Stroitel'stva" [Economics of Construction], Moscow, Vysshaya Shkola, 1977, pp 400-401 (textbook).

Now let us consider the mechanism by which savings form during a definite period for planning production as a whole. If the planning organization has a relatively stable average wage per employee, the actual prime cost of direct and overhead expenditures to produce planning output per employee will also be stable. This relationship is shown graphically in the table below, which presents actual figures for the entire country for 1964-1968.

Table 3. Actual Figures for Prime Cost and Average Wages per Employee (This period was chosen because only in 1965 and 1968 were there significant fluctuations in average wages.)

Indicators	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968
Prime Cost (Direct and Overhead Expenditures), millions of rubles	1,859	1,835	1,872	1,904	1,985
Prime Cost as Percentage of Preceding Year	2.3	-1.3	2.0	1.8	4.4
Average Wage as Percentage of Previous Year	1.6	-2.0	2.0	1.7	8.6

Let us assume that the planning organization uses direct prices that correspond to its actual expenditures, but that it has an actual overload relative to the volume of work established by plan of just 10 or 20 percent (in practice these fluctuations may be much greater). Then if prime cost, average wage, and number of employees are constant at beginning and end of the period, we will receive indicators that show quite graphically the mechanism by which above-normal savings form (see Table 4 below).

As the figures given in Table 4 show, where other conditions are equal the sum of actual prime cost does not depend on the amount of plan fulfillment assumed within the limits of the fulfillment actually achieved, but the amount of savings increases directly dependent on this. In practice, however, the director of an organization avoids a significant overfulfillment of the plan (the indicators in columns 3 and 6) which under the existing planning system (base plus growth) may lead to failure to fulfill indicators for the next year. Therefore, as a minimum, to fulfill the assignment for savings, for example, it is necessary in the first case (column 4) to overfulfill the volume by 140,000 rubles, and in the second case (column 7) by 280,000 rubles. It is also necessary to establish an organization fund in view of the insignificant size of the sum (2,400 rubles for roughly 1,400 persons), and the planning organization chooses certain indicators which it considers optimal (columns 5 or 8).

In practice, report indicators within the limits of actually achieved indicators are determined with due regard for a number of other factors: the volume of work performable with possible payment both in the current and in the coming year, the possibility of accelerating or delaying payment for work completed in the current year, and the inadvisability of significantly overfulfilling the plan. Thus, planning organizations working under the new system

Table 4. Hypothetical Example for Planning Production.

Indicators	Savings Plan for Year	Actual Savings Where Plan is Fulfilled By					
		110%			120%		
		Should Be	Fulfillment	Considering Formation of Organization Fund	Should Be	Fulfillment of Savings Plan	Considering Formation of Organization Fund
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Estimated Cost	4,000	4,400	4,140	4,200	4,800	280	4,360
Prime Cost	3,880	4,020	4,020	4,020	4,160	4,160	4,160
Savings	120	380	120	180	640	120	180
Deduction to Organization Fund*	2.4	80.4	2.4	20.4	158.4	2.4	20.4

* Two percent of planned profit and 30 percent of above-planned profit. Deductions to the organization fund are taken according to the old system because the large-scale transition of planning organizations to the new conditions of planning and economic stimulation was accomplished in 1976-1977 and actual savings for 1977-1978 were about 28 percent.

who expect to fulfill the profit plan for the year for definite projects artificially delay settlement of accounts toward the end of the year to avoid forming above-plan profit which may be fully transferred to the budget. Planning organizations that have the right to use above-plan profit (under the old system) will, by contrast, accelerate the production of documents or payment times for work where profit is inadequate.

It is noteworthy that the actual prime cost has stabilized, for the first time without a reduction in the prices for planning work, at a level of 74 percent of estimated cost (see Table 1 above). In large part this was a result of the widespread transfer of planning organizations to the new system in 1976-1977; under the new system above-plan profit is fully transferred to the budget. It is also distinctive that above-plan profit is created at organizations that have not been transferred to the new system, mainly in the fourth quarter.

As we review the mechanism of formation of savings (Tables 2 and 4) and actual figures for the national economy as a whole (Tables 1 and 3), the following conclusions may be drawn. The basic reason for the high level of savings in planning should be sought primarily in the interrelationship between the specific features of planning labor and production (the possibility of sharply reducing planning time and the high proportion of wages in prime cost) with the overloading of planning organizations and the existing system of planning profit and forming the organization fund. Some may object that there are cases, although rarely encountered, where organizations do not fulfill their profit plans. But this is not a result of underloading the organization; it occurs because the amount of planned profit does not correspond to the existing workload and carryover work from the preceding period. We must not forget that planning organizations are without not just five-year or two-year plans, but essentially they do not even have stable annual work plans. From the moment that the annual subject plan is ratified until the end of the planning year actual changes in various indicators frequently alter virtually the entire list of jobs, which has been observed many times in the literature. Moreover, the discrepancy between the existing Manual of Prices and real expenditures, the actual formation of contracts only in the first quarter of the planning period, and several other shortcomings in the system of managing planning production prevent the planning organization itself from making even an approximate forecast of its basic economic indicators for more than 3-4 months ahead.

The planning agencies today do not have scientifically substantiated criteria for defining the workload of planning organizations, and this makes it possible in some degree for administrative agencies to plan work volumes not on the basis of the organization's capacity but rather by the probable needs of capital construction. And if a planning organization that is overloaded cannot perform the range of jobs at existing prices to fulfill planned profit, it begins to search for other jobs (which increase the overload even more) while simultaneously attempting to select "profitable" analogs in the Manual of Prices or to reduce the profit assignment for planned growth as compared to the level actually achieved in the preceding period.

All these factors lead objectively to a worsening of plan quality and artificial distortion of the economic indicators of planning organization work.

These shortcomings will not be completely eliminated when planning is fully transferred to the new system either.

The scope of an article in a journal does not permit a detailed consideration of all aspects of the proposed solutions, particularly where the author's principal objective was to identify the real causes of the high profitability of planning. What are the possible ways, in our opinion, to make profit an effective lever for raising the efficiency of work by planning organizations and the sectors that use planning output? All prices for planning work introduced in the postwar period were officially abolished not only because discrepancies quickly came about between true expenditures and the list of jobs, but also because of the significant complexity in applying them. Given the steadily increasing pace of scientific-technical progress, any new nationwide prices for specific items will begin going out of date even before they are implemented. Therefore, based on factual data for several years, it would be wise at the national level to ratify only an averaged percentage of the cost of planning relative to the volume of capital investment in each sector (group of similar sectors) and region. The sectorial and territorial agencies charged with managing planning should ratify similar percentages differentiated by types of construction (new construction, expansion, reconstruction, and the like) and value of capital investment (an inverse relationship).

To stimulate high quality plans and avoid artificially overstating the cost of construction it is advisable to preserve actually established percentages of planning cost with mandatory introduction (paid for by the impact achieved in industry or construction) of supplementary pay for the quality indicators of plans, specifically reducing the cost of construction and the prime cost of output (services). The procedure for determining and paying supplements should insure a unity of interest between the national economy and the organization and a real possibility of achieving the quality indicators of the plan. Profit should be planned to be stable for the five-year period with deviations from norms only for the planned pay supplements.

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³ An experiment with the use of active prices showed that they were already unsuitable by the time of their introduction in 1967.

REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT

PROBLEMS, POTENTIAL OF LARGE CITIES STUDIED

Features, Problems of Cities

Moscow IZVESTIYA AKADEMII NAUK SSSR - SERIYA EKONOMICHESKAYA in Russian No 4,
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[Article by I. I. Sigov: "The Large City as an Object of Research"]

[Text] This article reveals the essence of the city as a unique type of region. It examines its place in the national economy and the peculiarities of its development within the following contexts: the city and the future, the city and society, the city and its population, the city as a balanced socioeconomic organism, and the city and its administrative subsystem.

Cities are playing an increasingly important role in societal life in today's world. According to forecasts for the year 2000, more than half of the world's population will be living in cities by that time. The estimates range from a minimum of 51 percent to a maximum of 61.5 percent.¹ In the USSR, the urban population was augmented by 63 million just between 1959 and 1979 and reached 163 million, while its relative proportion in the national population rose from 48 to 62 percent.²

Soviet cities have displayed a tendency toward a change in the proportional population distribution between small and large (with more than 100,000 inhabitants) urban settlements in favor of the latter. In 1926 the ratio was 63.7:36.3; in 1939 it was 52.9:47.1; in 1970 it was 44.5:55.5; and in 1976 it was 41.7:58.3.³ The unionwide population census of 1979 testified that the absolute increase in the population of large cities was greater than the increase in the total population. In 1970 there were 222 large cities in the nation. In 1979 there were already 272, and their total population was 96.6 million (21 million more than in 1970). The quickest growth was witnessed in cities with a 1970 population of 200,000-300,000. Moreover, the highest absolute population increase was seen in the nation's largest cities: Moscow, Leningrad, Kiev, Tashkent and Minsk. At the beginning of 1979, 31.5 percent of the total urban population of the USSR lived in 45 cities with populations of over 500,000. The number of cities with a population of a million rose from 10 to 18. When the census was taken, the populations of another two cities--Kazan' and Perm'--were approaching this figure.⁴

The increase in the number of large cities and in the number of their inhabitants is the reason for the scientific and practical interest in aspects of their

development. These include, above all, the following: the large city and its future, the city and society (the city in the system of social division of labor), the city and its population (the working conditions and way of life of the large city's population), the city as an integral socioeconomic organism (the balanced economic and social development of the city), and the large city in the system for the management of the economic and social development of society. It is particularly important to research the largest cities (with a population exceeding 500,000), in which these aspects of development are most pronounced, reflecting the fundamental problems of urbanization.

Urbanization is inextricably connected with the intensification of the general process of division of labor. The birth of cities has historically been connected with the separation of industry from agriculture. "Division of labor within the boundaries of a single nation leads primarily to the separation of industrial and commercial labor from farming labor and, thereby, to the separation of the city from the countryside."⁵ The city and the countryside make up specific social groups, urban and rural populations, as human communities united by the place of habitation. These groups are distinguished by differing conditions of existence. The real meaning of the term "city" can only be disclosed by an analysis of the city as a specific link in the system of social division of labor, as a part of the economic system of society, and as a specific form of human settlement and way of life, a unique social community. Cities represent integral socioeconomic complexes, centers of technological progress and the economic, political and spiritual life of people.

As links in territorial division of labor, cities can be viewed as a unique type of region. The region is a much more complex structure than the branch. Whereas the branch is a group of enterprises and production units identical in some respects, the region is a group of the most diverse economic branches, encompassing the production, distribution, exchange and consumption of material and spiritual goods and services within a specific territory. It is precisely within the bounds of the region that a comprehensive approach can be taken to the resolution of various social problems and the attainment of economic objectives, including the efficient use of society's natural and labor resources.

The singularity of the city as a type of region stems primarily from the concentration of many production and non-production branches, as well as inhabitants, within a relatively small area. The city, as a territorial concentration of productive forces and inhabitants, is generally the economic and cultural center of a larger region (a rural rayon, oblast, kray or republic), with which it combines to make up an indissoluble entity. The planned development of socialist cities in the interests of all members of society is inextricably connected with the attainment of the most important social objective--the eradication of significant differences between urban and rural areas. These differences represent a concrete reflection of the general division of labor into large spheres, primarily industry and agriculture. This specific reflection is distinguished by the following features: a) the industrial and agricultural types of labor differ considerably from one another in terms of the machine-worker ratio, the organization of labor, and socioeconomic, cultural-personal and natural conditions; b) industry is concentrated in the cities, while the countryside is the center of agricultural production.

The ways of equalizing rural and urban conditions have been researched more or less in their entirety. The development of the mechanization, chemization and electrification of agricultural production, its specialization and its concentration by means of interfarm cooperation and agroindustrial integration establish favorable conditions for the more uniform distribution of industry, the industrialization of agricultural labor, the enlargement of rural settlements and the formation of well-planned populated points of the urban type. This is how V. I. Lenin stated the issue when he spoke of the need to "combine industry with farming by means of the conscious application of science, collective labor and new human settlement patterns (putting an end to the neglect of rural areas and their isolation from the rest of the world, as well as to the unnatural concentration of gigantic population masses in big cities."⁶

Much less attention has been given to the future appearance of large socialist cities from the standpoint of the need to preserve certain advantages of the rural way of life. Attention is generally focused on the need to beautify cities, provide them with all necessary services and amenities, and protect the environment. As was pointed out at the 24th CPSU Congress, "the advantages of socialism make it possible to direct the natural process of urban growth in such a way as to guarantee the urban population increasingly healthy and comfortable living conditions."⁷ Nature is now becoming an integral attribute of the urban environment, as is most clearly demonstrated by the examples of Moscow, Leningrad, Kiev and some other of the nation's largest cities.

There is a need, however, for special research into some other ways of equalizing urban and rural living conditions, namely the development of hothouse and greenhouse farming near large cities, the establishment of urban produce associations (or cooperatives), the organization of subsidiary farming in the recreational centers of urban industrial, transport and other enterprises and organizations, and so forth.

An important condition for the more uniform distribution of industrial production units throughout the nation and the eradication of significant differences between urban and rural regions is the restriction of the excessive growth of large cities and the stimulation of the development of small and medium-sized urban settlements. The announcement of this policy coincided with the beginning of five-year planning in the Soviet national economy. In June 1931 a plenum of the Central Committee of the All-Russian Communist Party (Bolshevik) met to discuss the Moscow municipal economy and noted the inexpediency of the creation of gigantic cities. The plenum resolved to prevent the excessive concentration of production and people in urban centers.⁸

The expediency of restricting the growth of large cities and stimulating the growth of small and medium-sized ones has been reaffirmed in numerous exceedingly important policy-planning and directive documents. The need for unswerving adherence to this policy has been underscored at all recent party congresses.⁹ The decisions of the 23th CPSU Congress envisage "the continued restriction of the growth of large cities and the development of economically promising small and medium-sized cities, with their production sector consisting mainly of small enterprises, branches and specialized shops of existing associations, factories and plants,"¹⁰ in order to improve the distribution of productive forces in the nation.

The restriction of population growth in large cities presupposes the following: a) the curtailment of the construction of new industrial enterprises and the enlargement of existing ones, with the exception of enterprises which serve the public directly or are connected with housing construction; b) the transfer of some industrial enterprises and shops, scientific research institutes and planning organizations to other cities and populated points.

The restriction of the growth of large cities is one way of equalizing the socio-cultural and consumer features of all types of settlements. The concentration of considerable resources in large cities restricts opportunities for the development of new regions and the establishment of new centers of production and cultural life. At a certain point in time, the advantages of living in a large city begin to coexist with an urgent need to solve problems in the protection of the environment and public health and to reduce the cost of maintaining an increasingly complex system of municipal services.

The need to restrict the growth of large cities is no longer a problem pertaining to a single type of settlement. It has become a matter of the efficient organization of a zone in which the comprehensive and interrelated growth of urban and rural settlements of varying dimensions and characteristics must be ensured. Research into the developmental prospects of large cities and into their future is inextricably connected with the general theory of urbanization and the study of its natural tendencies and distinctive features under socialist conditions. Special attention must be given to the reasons why large cities in the USSR continue to grow despite the official line of stimulating the development of economically promising small and medium-sized cities.

The most important socioeconomic problems of large cities in the socialist society concern the need to define their place in society, to clarify their contribution to national economic development and to preserve their status as technological and cultural centers. The more uniform distribution of productive forces in the USSR and the realization of the possibilities of industrial production in the nation's eastern regions are contributing to a relative reduction in the role of the nation's large western and central cities in the economic and social life of society. Their leading position in the socioeconomic life of society can be preserved by intensifying the specialization of the particular economic branches and cultural fields in the cities most conducive to their development. This would mean the more precise delineation of the "image" of each large city: its production, scientific, cultural and architectural features. The conflict between the uniform distribution of productive forces throughout the nation and the tendency toward reduction in the relative contribution of branches in large cities to national economics and culture can be resolved to some degree through the establishment of a more efficient sectorial structure and the heightened specialization of the most promising branches with a view to the needs of society and the inherent potential of cities. This will naturally necessitate the determination of "semi-specialized" and "non-specialized" branches and production units in each specific city and their transfer out of the city.

The remodeling and technical re-equipping of production units in several old cities, where the capital-labor ratio in industry is lower than the union average, will also be extremely important in effecting an absolute increase in economic potential. It is here that Soviet industry was born, and a number of enterprises here are still using outdated machine tools and technological equipment which must be replaced.

An important way of heightening the effectiveness of industry in the cities consists in the specialization and concentration of production, the creation of production and scientific-production associations and the organization of industrial centers with groups of enterprises making use of the same service organizations and utilities, including common supply and communication lines. The resulting industrial zones reduce the need for capital investments in remodeling and minimize the territory of industrial construction and railroad access lines.

The next problem of the large cities is the need to improve the working and living conditions of the population. Sizeable intersectorial differences in the working conditions, homelife and recreational opportunities of people constitute one of the reasons for personnel turnover and the declining prestige of a number of professions. In this connection, it is extremely important to use municipal budget, trade-union and enterprise funds to establish a single municipal system for the organization of leisure activities for workers and the creation of cooperative recreational centers by small enterprises and establishments.

In recent years there have been numerous discussions of the need to expand the proportional participation of enterprises and departments in the development of the social infrastructure of cities and to solicit enterprise funds not only for housing construction, but also for cultural and consumer construction, engineering equipment and civic improvements. The "Procedural Instructions on Planning for the Comprehensive Economic and Social Development of a City," ratified by an RSFSR Gosplan decree of 30 July 1979, envisage plans for the collective use of the funds of enterprises, establishments and organizations, allocated for housing, utility, highway, cultural and consumer construction and the construction of educational, health, trade and public catering facilities (including funds for sociocultural undertakings and housing construction), as well as funds for the enlargement and remodeling of water-supply, sewerage, gas- and heat-supply and communication facilities, access roads and other facilities used in common with production enterprises. They also list the public service facilities to be turned over by ministries and departments to the jurisdiction of the city soviet, as well as the steps which must be taken to prepare these facilities for the transfer.¹¹

Under these conditions, the workers of small and large enterprises will have increasingly equal opportunities to satisfy their social needs. New opportunities to improve public working and living conditions in cities have been afforded by the decree of the CPSU Central Committee and USSR Council of Ministers "On the Improvement of Planning and the Enhancement of the Economic Mechanism's Effect on Production Efficiency and the Quality of Work." This decree stipulates that plans for economic and social development should contain sections pertaining to the entire complex of measures in the area of social development. These comprehensive sections will envisage measures to improve working conditions, heighten the qualifications and professional skills of workers, raise the general educational and cultural level of the population, and improve housing, cultural and consumer conditions and medical services, as well as other measures in the area of social development, coordinated with assignments pertaining to the development of production, capital construction and the augmentation of their effectiveness.

Consideration should be given to the suggestion that one of the subsections of this section of the plan should be entitled "The Communist Indoctrination of Workers" and should include such objectives as "The Ideological and Political Indoctrination and Political-Economic Education of Workers," "The Development of Labor Enthusiasm,"

"The Development of Sociopolitical Enthusiasm," "The Organization of the Leisure Time of Workers" and "Legal Indoctrination and the Prevention of Antisocial Behavior."¹²

One of the urgent socioeconomic problems of the large cities is the need for their comprehensive balanced development. The necessary balance is not always maintained between the need for manpower and the supply of labor resources; between existing jobs in the cities and the professional qualifications of the labor force; between public demand for certain types of material goods and services and the development of the corresponding branches of physical production and the non-production sphere; between the capacity of communication and supply lines and the need for them in the production and non-production spheres; between the capacities of the construction industry and the need for capital construction, and so forth. The problem of environmental protection and the intelligent use of natural resources is becoming more and more acute in large cities. The resolution of this problem presupposes the compilation of ecological maps and comprehensive environmental protection plans.

The precise classification of the economic structure of cities is of considerable importance in ensuring their balanced development. This classification can take different forms. In one of these, branches are subdivided into city-forming (determining the place of the city in the national economic system) and city-serving (satisfying the needs of the city's inhabitants and visitors).¹³ In another, they are divided into extra-municipal or municipal branches—that is, branches outside or within the jurisdiction of the city soviet.¹⁴ In a third, they are divided into specialized and service branches, and these are subdivided in turn into local production branches serving the needs of the economy, as well as those satisfying public demand, and the public service sphere or social infrastructure.¹⁵

When the sectorial structure of a city is being determined, it seems correct to single out the following groups:

Specialized branches (industry, science, the training of personnel with a higher or secondary specialized education, some types of public services—health spas, museums and so forth—and some types of production services);

Local branches for the production of the means of production and consumer goods;

The production infrastructure (branches serving production within the city limits: drayage, communications, material and technical supply, water and power supply enterprises, and so forth);

The social infrastructure (branches serving the city population: passenger transport and communications, trade and public catering, public utilities, consumer services, public education and pre-school establishments, public health and physical culture, and cultural fields);

The institutional infrastructure (the group of enterprises and establishments responsible for municipal administration: various administrative bodies, establishments of the finance and credit system, and so forth).

The factors determining the correlation of the groups of branches listed above and the criteria of an efficient municipal economic structure are of considerable

scientific and practical interest. The discovery of these constitutes one of the conditions for the conceptualization of each specific city, the balanced development of various elements of its economy and the enhancement of its economic and social impact.

In accordance with Article 147 of the Constitution of the USSR, the city soviet of people's deputies coordinates and oversees the activities of enterprises, establishments and organizations of superior jurisdiction located within its territory when these activities are connected with the use of land, environmental protection, construction, the use of labor resources, the production of consumer goods, and the offer of sociocultural, consumer and other services to the population. By exercising this right, the city soviets could play a more important organizational role in the comprehensive development of the municipal economy.

As the "Procedural Instructions on Planning for the Comprehensive Economic and Social Development of a City" point out, planning commissions, working with the appropriate city and oblast services, submit proposals to ministries and departments regarding the more efficient use of the most scarce resources, including proposals connected with the use of waste-free technology, the recycling of water, the heightened density of construction, the confiscation of unused territory from lessees, and so forth.¹⁶

The comprehensive, balanced development of the city depends largely on the creation of a precise system consisting of a single client, a single designer and a single builder. The assignment of all client functions to the gorispolkom, with the simultaneous transfer to it of all enterprise resources and funds for the construction of the production and social infrastructure, will serve as a precondition for the successful implementation of a unified urban development policy in accordance with the territorial, economic and social potential of the city.

The compilation of balance sheets recording the utilization of labor resources, territory, water resources, fuel and so forth is an essential condition for the proportional development of branches of the municipal economy. In recent years, increasing attention has been given to the need to stabilize the balance of labor resources by remodeling industrial enterprises, automating and mechanizing production processes, moving non-specialized enterprises and organizations out of large cities and promoting natural population growth.

The need for better administration and, above all, an efficient combination of sectorial and territorial planning is the central problem of the big city. Many cities in the USSR still do not represent integral objects of national economic planning. With the exception of Moscow, Leningrad, Sverdlovsk and a number of union republic centers, the planning of the municipal economy is generally accomplished through a multitude of departmental channels, and the plans themselves are based on the resources of enterprises and establishments of municipal jurisdiction. The comprehensive plan includes only indicators of the plans of organizations of superior jurisdiction in regard to sociocultural matters and public services. The plans of different cities often have different procedural bases and do not correspond to sections of comprehensive kray and oblast plans.

Comprehensive plans are now being drafted in the USSR for cities as well as rural administrative regions, oblasts, krays and republics. This raises the question of

the correlation of these plans, or their interrelationship, particularly the plan of a large city and the corresponding plan of an oblast, kray or republic. This problem has become even more pressing now that urban agglomerates and urbanized territories are taking shape. The gradual transformation of agglomerates into populated points regulated according to plan presupposes the closer coordination of plans for the development of individual cities with one another and with the plans for oblasts (or krays or republics) in general.

One of the urgent problems connected with the improvement of planning is the need to provide for an organic relationship between plans for economic and social development and general plans. This will necessitate that the architectural planning aspects of construction and remodeling, as well as the economic and social aspects, be combined to make up a single entity.

The determination of a city's developmental prospects presupposes the prediction of demographic and ecological conditions and the analysis of the city's current technological, economic and social potential and ecological state. In this connection, the question of describing a city in terms of the general characteristics of its developmental level arises, as well as the question of compiling an ecological map of the city. A scientifically substantiated system for the categorization of cities is an important objective because problems in the functioning of a city and its developmental prospects stem largely from the category to which it belongs.

The disclosure of the natural laws of urbanization, the categorization of cities, the identification of their salient features and the prediction of demographic and ecological conditions constitute an essential basis for improvement in the administration of urban development. This gives rise to the problem of examining the city as a system, consisting of administrating and administrated subsystems, and the investigation of the administrative potential of the city as one of its structural elements (the institutional infrastructure). The question of the place occupied by various categories of cities in the system of national economic management and the peculiarities of the city as an object of management is of interest in itself.

The further improvement of the procedures of comprehensive urban planning and the management of urban functioning and development is one of the tasks facing scientists and practical workers.

FOOTNOTES

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10. "Materialy XXV s"yezda KPSS," p 223.
11. See "Procedural Instructions on Planning for the Comprehensive Economic and Social Development of a City," Moscow, 1979, p 33.
12. "The Comprehensive Plan for the Economic and Social Development of Leningrad and Leningrad Oblast--In Action," Exhibit of Achievements of the National Economy of the USSR, Leningrad, 1980, p 17.
13. "Long-Range Planning for the Economic and Social Development of the City. Recommended Procedures," Moscow, Profizdat, 1977, p 4.
14. "Procedural Instructions on the Compilation of Plans for the Economic and Social Development of Autonomous Republics, Krays, Oblasts and Branches of Republic (RSFSR) Jurisdiction," Moscow, Ekonomika, 1978, p 26.
15. "Metodicheskiye problemy sotsial'no-ekonomicheskogo razvitiya regionov SSSR" [Procedural Problems in the Socioeconomic Development of Regions of the USSR], Moscow, Nauka, 1979, pp 7-8.
16. "Procedural Instructions on Planning for the Comprehensive Economic and Social Development of a City," p 73.

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Effects of Technological Revolution

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[Article by N. N. Ukhov: "The Scientific and Technical Potential of the Large City and Its Effectiveness"]

[Text] An analysis of the place occupied by the large city in the system of social division of labor is used as a basis for examining the role of its scientific and technical potential, the peculiarities of the course of technological progress in the city and the effect of technological progress on the structure and rate of development of industrial enterprises located within

the city. The author also analyzes ways of increasing the influence of technological progress in the enhancement of regional economic efficiency and the creation of optimal conditions for public life in the large city.

The dynamic and planned development of production and the augmentation of its effectiveness in the socialist society are accomplished primarily by accelerating technological progress. Between 1966 and 1975, more than four-fifths of the increase in national income was derived from the use of research findings in the national economy, the better quality and increased quantity of technical equipment and the higher qualifications of workers.

In the future, science and technology will play an increasingly decisive role in society's development, particularly in connection with the need for the further intensification of production, with the scarcity of labor, energy and mineral resources and with the need to protect the environment.

The growth and increasing complexity of social production are making it urgent to study the tendencies of the technological revolution on the scale of administrative territorial complexes, particularly in large cities. It is a question of mobilizing local potential to accelerate technological progress and increase the region's contribution to national economic development, maintaining favorable conditions for public life with the aid of planning without violating the sectorial principle of administration, using scientific and technical achievements even more actively in production and augmenting economic and social effectiveness.

The objective processes of social development have led to the appreciable concentration of scientific and production potential in large cities, which have become centers of technological progress, determining both the creation and development of the national material and technical base and the training of qualified personnel for various branches of the national economy. Around one-third of all the persons employed in the sphere of science and scientific services, one-fifth of all scientific institutions and one-third of all expenditures on science are concentrated in just Moscow and Leningrad, the largest scientific centers in the USSR and the world.

During the years of Soviet rule, the geography of scientific centers has expanded appreciably. These centers now include Kiev, Novosibirsk, Sverdlovsk, Gor'kiy, Minsk and others. Naturally, the continued development of information systems and increasing migration will gradually reduce the role of the largest cities as scientific centers, but they will remain the main centers of technological progress in the foreseeable future.

Analysis indicates that the significance of science and scientific services as a branch of the national economy has recently been rising rapidly in the large cities. At present, 1 out of every 5 workers in Moscow, 1 out of every 8 in Leningrad, 1 out of every 9 in Kiev and 1 out of every 13 in Novosibirsk is employed in the sphere of science and scientific services. Science and scientific services occupy one of the most prominent places in the largest scientific centers, Moscow and Leningrad, in terms of the number of persons employed in the national economy.

The concentration of science in large cities is due primarily to economic factors--the creation of strong production potential, the development of which necessitates constant scientific and technical innovation and simultaneously stimulates innovation and mobilizes it for the resolution of important scientific problems. An important role is played by the historical scientific and cultural traditions of many large cities, the presence of academic science in them, and their developed system for the training of highly qualified personnel. The cities also afford favorable conditions for extensive scientific communication--an important factor in productive creative work.

The high concentration of scientific and production potential in large cities creates favorable conditions heightening the quality and effectiveness of scientific research and experimental design projects, reducing the "research-production" cycle and establishing effective ties between science and production.

The present scales of the concentration of technological potential are necessitating the quicker enhancement of the effectiveness of scientific research by means of its intensification in accordance with the stipulations of the decree of the CPSU Central Committee and USSR Council of Ministers "On the Improvement of Planning and the Enhancement of the Economic Mechanism's Effect on Production Efficiency and the Quality of Work." The determination of effective ways of enhancing the impact of research in a large city presupposes the resolution of difficult methodological problems, particularly the problem of managing science. The study of accumulated experience indicates that the main conditions and factors contributing to the better management of science and the heightened quality and effectiveness of research in large cities are the following:

The determination of the nature, structure and volume of national economic demands which are now satisfied and will be satisfied in the future by the sphere of "science and scientific services";

The determination of the nature, structure and volume of city demands which are now satisfied and will be satisfied in the future by this sphere;

The determination of the degree to which the activities of the city's scientific establishments correspond to national economic and regional demands and the elaboration of proposals regarding the development and specialization of the region in national technological progress with a view to existing technological potential and the specific requirements of the region;

The concentration of efforts and resources in the most important fields of science;

The establishment of sound proportions between science and the branches of physical production and between fundamental, sectorial and VUZ science and the material, technical and personnel components of scientific potential;

The development of effective ties between fundamental and sectorial science and between science and production;

The efficient distribution of scientific establishments throughout the city and around it;

The accomplishment of interdepartmental research coordination and cooperation and the compilation of a comprehensive city plan for the development of science and technology.

The largest cities are centers of academic, sectorial and VUZ science. But the "systemic effect" of the unique composition of the diverse scientific forces of such cities has not been utilized in its entirety. Suffice it to say that most academic institutions conduct 90-95 percent of their scientific projects on their own. It is obvious that the specialization, cooperation and coordination of research projects represent a sizeable reserve for the enhancement of their effectiveness and quality along with the development of a material base. In Leningrad this work has been assigned to the Interdepartmental Coordinating Council of the USSR Academy of Sciences, which unites 14 specialized councils for the basic fields of science represented in the city.

Leningrad is the second largest and most important (after Moscow) scientific center in the USSR. Many of the scientific institutions and academicians of the USSR Academy of Sciences are based here, as well as several hundred sectorial research and design organizations and 41 higher academic institutions. The scientific schools that have been established and are successfully developing in various fields--mathematics, astronomy, nuclear physics, solid state physics, macromolecular and organic chemistry, zoology and others--enjoy world renown.

In addition to its highly developed academic science, the city has considerable sectorial scientific potential. A high percentage of the total number of workers in sectorial research institutes of the USSR work in Leningrad's sectorial scientific establishments. The high concentration of sectorial science is due to the following factors. In the first place, there is the presence of academic scientific establishments conducting fundamental research in major areas of technological progress. Secondly, there is the developed network of higher academic institutions for the training of young specialists and scientists in the newest scientific fields, which simplifies the personnel recruitment work of sectorial institutes, design organizations and scientific-production complexes. Thirdly, and this is the most important factor, since the first years of industrialization Leningrad has been a center of the concentration of branches of industry requiring the highest scientific input--precision machine building, instrument making, radioelectronics and shipbuilding. These branches, which will remain a specialty of the city over the long range, are distinguished by a high volume of research and development per ruble of sold product (2-6 times as high as the figure for industry as a whole), a high percentage of scientific and technical workers and engineering personnel, and the quicker updating of product assortment.

Considerable scientific potential is concentrated in the city's higher academic institutions. The activities of the interdepartmental council of the USSR Academy of Sciences in Leningrad afford extensive opportunities for the purposeful direction and coordination of the efforts of scientific establishments in the city for the investigation of the most urgent and significant problems of technological progress, the resolution of which will augment the city's contribution to national economic development. In conjunction with the Central Boiler Turbine Institute imeni I. I. Polzunov Scientific-Production Association, the Interdepartmental Council of the USSR Academy of Sciences in Leningrad is responsible for the overall coordination of the technological portion of the long-range comprehensive program

envisaging a greater contribution to the development of the fuel and energy complex, which was drawn up under the supervision of the Council for Economic and Social Development of the Leningrad CPSU Obkom, and other programs. The implementation of the main program will produce an economic savings of around 9 billion rubles, almost 40 billion kilowatt-hours of electrical energy and 150 million tons of fuel in the coming decade.¹

The utilization of the major ways of heightening the effectiveness of science's functioning within the framework of the comprehensive plan for the economic and social development of Leningrad will afford more opportunity to complete the transition from primarily extensive to intensive methods of scientific development, accomplish a quicker increase in the volume of research and design projects in comparison to the number of workers, and heighten the quality and effectiveness of research and development. In 1975, for example, the annual economic effect per ruble of expenditures was 146.2 percent of the 1970 figure.

When G. V. Romanov, member of the CPSU Central Committee Politburo and first secretary of the Leningrad CPSU Obkom, addressed the voters of the Smol'nyy Electoral District on 6 February 1980, he noted the high economic effectiveness of the scientific design projects of local research and design organizations: "The economic effect of the incorporation of scientific designs, tested in national economic practice, since the beginning of the five-year plan has been around a billion rubles. The engineers of this success deserve, Comrades, the most fervent expressions of gratitude."²

The intensive means of developing research, in contrast to extensive means, are based primarily on the higher technical level of scientific work, more productive labor of better quality, more efficiently organized labor, highly effective systems of financial and moral incentives, better forms of management and closer ties to production.

In the 11th Five-Year Plan, almost the entire increase in research projects in Leningrad is to result from intensive factors of scientific development.

The complexity of today's scientific-technical and production tasks necessitates the close creative alliance of scientists, engineers and workers. The most favorable conditions for their accomplishment exist in large cities. It is no coincidence that it was precisely in large cities that the scientific-production complexes, which are successfully accomplishing the integration of science and production, originated and developed. The process of transforming science into an immediate productive force is progressing more smoothly in these complexes than in independent scientific organizations or enterprises. They allow for the effective combination of all stages of the manufacture of new technical equipment in a single goal-oriented process, the reduction of its length and the quickest possible utilization of the results of scientific and technical research and development.

A particularly effective organizational form for the combination of science and production is the scientific-production association. Their establishment does away with the need for the approval and acceptance of the results of various stages of the "research-production" cycle by separate and independent organizations and enterprises. This naturally heightens the concern and responsibility of all participants in this process for its final results. The completion of all stages of the

"research-production" cycle within a scientific-production association optimizes its organization, reduces the length of the cycle by incorporating parallel and parallel-sequential methods of organizing research, planning, experimental design and other projects, and provides for the more effective use of economic and moral incentives for the rapid attainment of highly effective final results. Research has shown that the functioning of scientific-production associations has reduced the length of time required for the development and mastery of new equipment by an average of one-third to one-half. Since the time the Pozitron Scientific-Production Association in Leningrad was founded, the length of the "research-production" cycle has been reduced from 3 years to 1 year.

In Leningrad's Plastpolimer Scientific-Production Association, highly productive assemblies have been developed and turned over for use in production within 5.5 years, whereas this process once took 10-11 years.³ Other indicators of effectiveness, particularly the economic effect per ruble of expenditure, are also rising quickly in the scientific-production associations. For example, the indicator of economic effectiveness rose three-fold at five of Leningrad's scientific-production associations within 5 years.

Therefore, the creation of the scientific-production associations, which have generally been concentrated in large cities, is becoming one of the most important factors of accelerated technological progress and heightened effectiveness.

Scientific and technical development in the large city encompasses all stages of the "research-production" cycle, but a distinctive feature of the present stage is the inadequate interconnection of these stages, stemming from the existence of various administrative systems--academic, sectorial and municipal. Under these conditions, the integration of science with production in large cities is being furthered by the institution of a comprehensive plan for the "research-production" cycle, based on a single contract. It specifies all of the scientific and production organizations, production associations and enterprises participating in projects, the final results of this activity, including the total economic effect, the length of all stages of the cycle from the beginning of research to incorporation in the national economy, total expenditures, sources of financing, and the amounts and terms of economic incentives.

After experiencing the need for the stronger integration of science and production, many scientific and production organizations in large cities are initiating the conclusion of multilateral work agreements aimed at the attainment of a common objective. For example, 28 of Leningrad's industrial associations and scientific and design organizations concluded an agreement on creative cooperation envisaging the reduction of the duration of engineering work, the conservation of material and labor resources and the enhancement of the quality and effectiveness of work on the Sayano-Shushensk GES. This initiative was commended by the CPSU Central Committee. It is already evident that the integration of the efforts of participants in the construction of this GES will reduce the duration of start-up operations by more than a year.

Considerable reserves for the acceleration of technological progress and the enhancement of its impact can be found in the development of cooperation by scientific organizations and enterprises of various branches represented in the city

for the attainment of common scientific and technical objectives. By means of scientific, technical and production cooperation, each organization contributes to the resolution of a common problem in line with its scientific, technical and production potential, and the final results are utilized by all participants, regardless of their sectorial affiliation. This presupposes the preliminary determination of the requirements of municipal industry and the choice of scientific and technical objectives and fields of technological progress that are important to enterprises and organizations which are located in the same city but are under the jurisdiction of different ministries and departments. City or regional special-purpose programs could serve as the organizational form for the management of this kind of cooperation. For Leningrad industry, for example, as speakers pointed out at the December Plenum (1979) of the Leningrad CPSU Obkom, programs connected with the introduction of group methods of processing, powder metallurgy, plasma processing and others are important at this time. The need to heighten labor productivity and relieve workers of the need to perform heavy labor calls for the development of highly effective means of mechanizing and automating production processes, particularly transport and warehousing operations, including a program for the development and use of robot devices with flexible local and centralized control for foundries and forges, and to replace people working in hazardous jobs.

The scientifically substantiated choice of effective areas of technological progress and the compilation, on this basis, of long-range special regional programs aimed at the socioeconomic development of a large city and the augmentation of its contribution to national economic development presupposes the thorough and comprehensive investigation of its role in social division of labor and the determination of alternative long-range developmental prospects, particularly in the areas of its national economic specialization, followed by the elaboration of plans for the development of its production spheres. Many of these complex problems in the development of the large city will be solved by the regional comprehensive programs for technological progress that are being drawn up for union republics, economic regions of the RSFSR and the largest centers of technological progress—Moscow and Leningrad.

The regional comprehensive program for technological progress, which represents an organic element of long-range planning, is a long-range regional plan of action pertaining to the development of science and technology, coordinated with other programs of this kind and with the all-union comprehensive program for technological progress in terms of goals, resources and completion dates.

Its most important elements are the following:

A forecast of the basic trends in technological progress in the region in the next 20 years and their effect on economic, social and ecological processes;

Special-purpose long-range scientific and technical programs covering a 10-year period. They are compiled on the basis of the forecast of the chief trends in technological progress in the next 20 years and the choice of areas of scientific and technical development in the region that are most effective from the national economic standpoint;

The initial measures to develop science and technology in the region in the next 5 years, as specified in the five-year plan for the economic and social development of the region.

The compilation of a regional comprehensive program for technological progress will aid in selecting the most effective means of developing scientific and technical potential in large cities and regions, will assist in the closer coordination of sectorial and territorial planning and will heighten the scientific soundness of plans for economic and social development. Its ultimate goal is the heightened effectiveness of national production on the basis of accelerated technological progress and the fuller satisfaction of public demand.

FOOTNOTES

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